

Osteoarthritis and Cartilage



Review

Osteoarthritis year in review 2019: genetics, genomics and epigenetics

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SUMMARY

Although osteoarthritis (OA) aetiology is complex, genetic, genomic and epigenetic studies published within the last decade have advanced our understanding of the molecular processes underlying this common musculoskeletal disease. The purpose of this narrative review is to highlight the key research articles within the OA genetics, genomics and epigenetics fields that were published between April 2018 and April 2019. The review focuses on the identification of new OA genetic risk loci, genomics techniques that have been used for the first time in human cartilage and new publicly available databases, and datasets that will aid OA functional studies.

Fifty-six new OA susceptibility loci were identified by two large scale genome wide association study meta-analyses, increasing the number of genome-wide significant risk loci to 90. OA risk variants are enriched near genes involved in skeletal development and morphology, and show genetic overlap with height, hip shape, bone area and developmental dysplasia of the hip. Several functional studies of OA loci were published, including a genome-wide analysis of genetic variation on cartilage gene expression. A specialised data portal for exploring cross-species skeletal transcriptomic datasets has been developed, and the first use of cartilage single cell RNAseq analysis reported. This year also saw the systematic identification of all microRNAs, long non-coding RNAs and circular RNAs expressed in human OA cartilage. Putative transcriptional regulatory regions have been mapped in human chondrocytes genome-wide, providing a dataset that will facilitate the prioritisation and characterisation of OA genetic and epigenetic loci.

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Introduction

Osteoarthritis (OA) is a chronic musculoskeletal disease characterised by the destruction of articular cartilage, synovial inflammation and bone remodelling. Although disease aetiology is complex, our understanding of the molecular processes underlying OA has been advanced through genetic, genomic and epigenetic studies^{1–3}. The goal of this annual review is to summarise the progress made within this field between April 2018 and April 2019. We have chosen to focus on the identification of new OA genetic risk loci and on new genomics techniques that have been used in human cartilage for the first time. We also highlight new publically available datasets and databases that will aid future functional studies of OA genetic and epigenetic loci.

OA genetics

Identification of new OA genetic risk loci

Identification of genetic loci using hypothesis-free genome wide association studies (GWAS) has given novel insights into diseases^{4–6}, identified potential drug targets⁷, and led to the use of polygenic risk scores in selecting individuals for clinical trials⁸. However, until recently, identification of OA loci was trailing behind other complex diseases and phenotypes such as rheumatoid arthritis (over 100 risk loci;⁹) and height (over 3,000 loci;¹⁰), with only 19 OA loci reported up to April 2017 at genome wide significance level of $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ (Fig. 1(A), Table 1,^{11–21}). The number of significant OA genetic risk loci has now increased to 90 (Table 1,^{22–29}), the majority of which have small effects sizes (odds ratios [OR] 1.03 to 1.25, Fig. 1(B)). As the number of samples included in the analysis has a significant effect on the number of loci identified³⁰, the increase in loci is largely explained by the publication of several large scale, well powered OA GWAS. Four of these studies have utilised genotyping and medical data for

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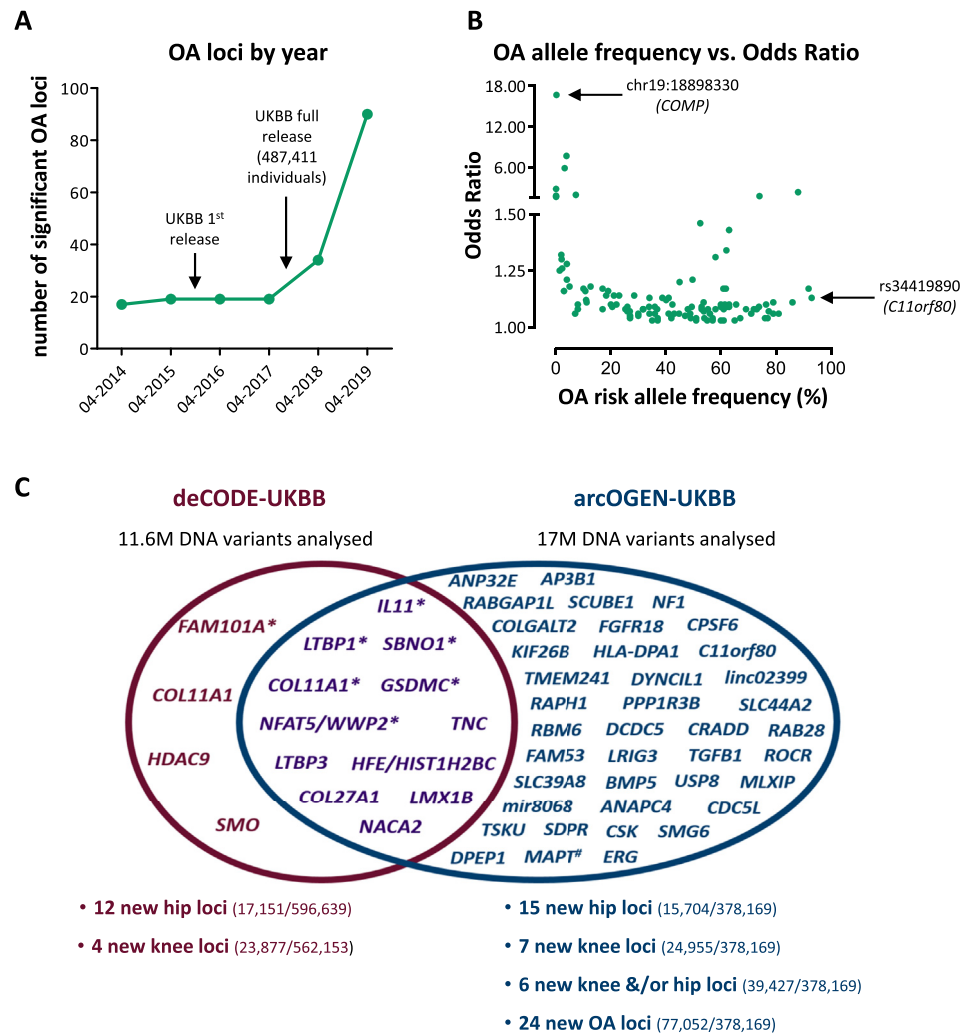


Fig. 1

OA genetic risk loci. **A)** Number of OA genetic risk loci identified at the genome-wide significance level by date. The number of loci has increased from 19 to 90 since the release of the UK biobank (UKBB) genotyping data, which was used in four OA GWAS studies published in 2018 and 2019^{26–29}. A full list of genome-wide significant OA loci is available in Table I. **B)** Odds ratio (OR) of OA risk alleles plotted against allele frequency for all OA SNPs listed in Table I. Arrows point towards the variants with the highest OR and highest OA risk allele frequency, with the nearest gene to these two variants indicated. Note, for some loci several SNPs have been reported. **C)** Overlap in the new OA risk loci identified in the deCODE-UKBB and arcOGEN-UKBB studies^{29,30}. The name of the nearest gene to the associated DNA variant is given; this may not be target gene of the OA. The variant identifier for each OA signal is given in Table I. *The OA variant is also associated with height at $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$. The number of OA cases and controls for each analysis is shown in brackets. # Two independent signals were reported overlapping the *MAPT* gene in the arcOGEN-UKBB study. Two independent *COL11A1* signals were identified in the deCODE-UKBB study, one of which was also identified in the arcOGEN-UKBB study and was associated with height in²⁸.

~488,000 individuals available as part of the UK biobank (UKBB; <https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/>), together with existing OA GWAS cohorts^{26–29}. The two largest OA analyses were published within the last year and together they identified 56 new loci (Fig. 1(B) and (C);^{28,29}). Unlike the majority of previous OA studies, which have employed the traditional GWAS design of signal discovery followed by replication, both studies performed a meta-analysis of the UKBB data together with the Icelandic deCODE genetics²⁸ or UK arcOGEN datasets²⁹. This meta-analysis approach has several advantages,

including increasing the power to detect genetic variants with small to modest effects sizes whilst reducing the probability of false-negative results and identify effect size heterogeneity across cohorts³¹. The deCODE-UKBB study included over 650,000 British and Icelandic individuals, making it the biggest OA GWAS published to date²⁸. They analysed 11.6 million genotyped variants present in both cohorts, performing separate meta-analyses for hip and knee OA [Fig. 1(C)]. The same OA definition was used for both cohorts,

and individuals with known causes of secondary OA (e.g., prior ACL injury and acetabular dysplasia) were excluded, yielding a total of 17,151 OA hip cases, 23,877 OA knee cases and up to 619,289 controls (individuals without any medical record of OA). They identified 23 independent associations at 22 loci in the additive meta-analyses (odds ratios [OR] 1.06 to 2.84) and two loci using a recessive mode (OR 1.95–5.89). This included 12 novel hip loci, four novel knee loci and replication of numerous existing loci including *CHADL*, *GDF5* and *FILIP1*. The arcoGEN-UKBB study analysed up to 17.5 million variants in over 455,000 UK individuals, reporting 65 genome-wide significant variants mapping to 64 loci²⁹. Separate analyses were performed for four OA phenotypes; OA hip, OA knee, hip and/or knee OA and OA at any site, although different OA definitions were used in the two cohorts. Fifty-two novel loci with ORs of 1.03–1.83 were reported, comprising of 15 new hip loci, seven knee loci, six hip and/or knee loci and 24 loci for OA at any site. Of the novel loci reported by these two meta-analyses, twelve were significant at the genome-wide level in both studies, including variants mapping to the *LMX1B*, *COL11A1* and *IL11* genes (Table 1, Fig. 1(C)); a larger overlap is observed when considering all signals that reach genome-wide suggestive *P* values. These studies confirmed that there are joint-site differences in genetic risk, with the majority of loci only associated with OA at a specific joint (Table 1). For example, the two signals with the most significant *P* values in both studies, mapping to the *GDF5* and *PTHLH* loci, were only significant for knee or hip OA respectively.

Pathway analysis revealed that OA loci are enriched near genes involved in skeletal development and/or associated with rare monogenic bone diseases²⁹. This includes the TGF β pathway genes *TGFB1*, *LTBP1*, *LTBP3* and *SMAD3*, and the recently identified *ROCR* long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) that acts upstream of *SOX9* during chondrogenic differentiation³². New OA pathways may be identified in the near future with the publication of the first multi-ethnic OA GWAS meta-analysis study performed by the Genetics of Osteoarthritis consortium³³; <https://www.genetics-osteoarthritis.com/home/index.html>). This is a global collaboration of 18 GWAS cohorts from Europe, Japan, Hong Kong and the USA, and includes more than twice the number of OA cases used in previous GWAS studies. In addition to hip and knee OA, meta-analyses are also being performed for spine, thumb and finger OA³³.

Genetic overlap of OA with hip morphology, height, bone area and DDH

It has been hypothesised that OA genetic risk loci may act during skeletal development, causing subtle differences in joint development and shape that, through alterations of joint biomechanics, predispose the individual to OA later in life^{3,34,35}. Several genetic studies published this year have provided further evidence of this hypothesis, with DNA variants associated with height²⁸, hip shape³⁶, and developmental dysplasia of the hip (DDH;³⁷) overlapping OA loci. The genetic link between OA risk and height was examined in the deCODE-UKBB GWAS, with 12/25 OA loci associated with increased (e.g., *FAM101A*, *FILIP1*) or decreased height (e.g., *COL11A1*, *GDF5*) at the genome-wide significance level (Table 1, Supplemental Table 1;²⁸). The first GWAS for hip shape used DXA scans of almost 16,000 individuals from five cohorts, and identified nine loci at $P < 5 \times 10^{-9}$ and 12 at $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ ³⁶. Two signals overlapped the established OA hip loci near the *PTHLH* and *ASTN2*, and another signal was located downstream of *ROCR*, overlapping the *ROCR/SOX9* OA knee loci reported in the arcoGEN-UKBB GWAS²⁹. Co-localisation analysis suggested a shared causal variant for hip shape, OA and height at the *ASTN2* locus, and for OA and hip shape at the *PTHLH* locus.

DDH is the most common developmental musculoskeletal disease and is characterised by abnormal development of the hip joint, a risk factor for degenerative hip diseases including OA. The largest DDH GWAS to date identified an association between the *GDF5* OA knee SNP rs143384 and DDH in European individuals³⁷, confirming previous reports of a suggestive association in Asian populations³⁸. rs143384 explained approximately 1% of DDH heritability, with fine mapping indicating this SNP had >99% likelihood of being the causal DDH variant at the locus. rs143384 is also associated with hip intertrochanteric/shaft and trochanter bone area as well as bone area of the lumbar spine³⁹. Although *GDF5* is not a risk locus for hip OA in Europeans^{28,29}, a new study in mice demonstrated a direct link between this gene and hip morphology⁴⁰. Compared to heterozygous mice, mice lacking the *GDF5* gene had abnormal proximal femur and acetabular morphology, including smaller femoral heads and neck. These dysmorphologies are concordant with changes that cause hip instability, injury and adult onset OA in humans.

Functional studies of OA loci

Once a DNA region harbouring OA genetic risk has been identified by GWAS, functional studies are required to pinpoint the causal variant(s), target gene(s), cell or tissue type in which this risk allele is acting, and when in the lifecourse this occurs. Although such functional studies have lagged behind identification of risk loci for many diseases⁴¹, there have been several functional studies of individual OA loci published this year. Together, these studies have prioritised candidate genes⁴², highlighted potential mechanisms of action^{42–44}, and examined the role of target genes in cartilage homeostasis and disease using mouse models^{45,46}. However, with identification of 56 new loci in the last year, there is a need to prioritise specific DNA variants and genes from within risk loci for functional studies in a rapid and systematic way.

The majority of common disease causing SNPs, including those for OA, are thought to act by altering transcription factor binding, subtly affecting transcription of nearby genes such that one allele drives higher gene expression than the other, termed allelic imbalance (AI). Online tools such as HaploReg⁴⁷ and LDlink⁴⁸ are invaluable for prioritising potential target genes and highlighting putative causal variants within a locus, some of which contain 100s–1000s of variants in high linkage disequilibrium (LD) with the OA SNP (see Table 1). These tools integrate genetic data from the 1,000 Genomes Project⁴⁹ with chromatin status, transcription factor binding, and DNase hypersensitivity (DHS) mapping generated by the ENCODE⁵⁰ and Epigenome Roadmaps projects⁵¹, and gene expression data from the GTEx Project (<https://gtexportal.org/home/>). Although chromatin state information is available for isolated osteoblasts and *in vitro* differentiated chondrocytes, there are limitations in the application of these tools for OA studies as the majority of data used for variant and gene prioritisation has been generated in non-synovial joint tissues.

However, a study published this year sought to detect all transcript SNPs showing AI in OA cartilage⁵², creating an important dataset for OA functional studies. RNAseq data was combined with genotype data for 42 OA cartilage samples in order to provide a downloadable dataset for probing the effect of genetic variants on gene expression in this disease relevant tissue (available at <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/art.40748/abstract>). A total 2070 SNPs marking AI in 1,031 cartilage expressed genes were identified, including SNPs within the known OA risk loci *ALDH1A2*, *MGP* and *COL11A1*. Integration of the dataset with DNA variants in high linkage disequilibrium (LD, $r^2 \geq 0.8$) with the new OA signals reveals AI of OA SNPs within the novel *COL11A1*, *LTBP1*, *TNC*, and *SLC44A2* loci (Table 1). Moreover, a DNA variant at the *SBN1* locus

chr	variant ID	trait	Ref	EA/NEA	EAF	OR	locus ID	nearest gene	SNPs [†]	others traits	AI	ATAC seq SNPs
chr 1	rs3753841*	hip	28	A/G	0.610	1.08	COL11A1	COL11A1	22	He, BA	↑ COL11A1	2
	rs2126643*	hip	28	C/T	0.655	1.10		COL11A1	1	He		
	rs4338381†	hip	29	A/G	0.630	1.10		COL11A1	15			1
	1:150214028 _{±,†}	OA	29	del/T	0.370	1.03	ANP32E	ANP32E	1			
	rs550034492 _{±,†}	OA	29	TA ₁₇ /Tdel	0.570	1.03	RABGAP1L	RABGAP1L	1			
	rs11583641†	hip	29	C/T	0.720	1.08	COLGALT2	COLGALT2	7			
	rs2820436	OA	27	A/C	0.318	1.08	LYPLAL1-AS1	LYPLAL1-AS1	49			
	rs2785988*	hip	28	A/C	0.317	1.08		LYPLAL1-AS1	22			
	rs2820443	H&K	29	C/T	0.300	1.06		LYPLAL1-AS1	21			
	rs10218792†	OA	29	G/T	0.270	1.04	KIF26B	KIF26B	3			
chr 2	rs2061026*	knee	28	A/G	0.488	1.06	LTBP1	LTBP1	119	He	↓ LTBP1	5
	rs2061027†	OA	29	A/G	0.510	1.04		LTBP1	125		↓ LTBP1	5
	rs3771501	OA	27	A/G	0.448	1.06	TGFA	TGFA	26			4
	rs3771501	OA	29	A/G	0.470	1.05		TGFA				
	rs12470967 _{±,†}	knee	29	A/G	0.430	1.06	SDPR	SDPR	1			
chr 3	rs62182810†	OA	29	A/G	0.550	1.03	RAPH1	RAPH1	46			1
	rs7639618	knee	12	G/A	0.630	1.43	COL6A4P1	COL6A4P1	80			
	rs62262139 _{±,†}	OA	29	A/G	0.540	1.04	RBM6	RBM6	123			7
	rs6976	TJR	18	T/C	0.401	1.12	GNL3/ITIH	GNL3	326			10
	rs678	hip	28	T/A	0.368	1.08		ITIH1	304	He		11
chr 4	rs3774355	hip	29	A/G	0.360	1.09		ITIH5	305			11
	rs12107036	TKR(F)	18	G/A	0.497	1.21	TP63	TP63	1			
	rs11732213†	H&K	29	T/C	0.810	1.06	FAM53	FAM53	70			10
	rs1913707†	hip	29	A/G	0.610	1.08	RAB28	RAB28	5			
	rs34811474†	OA	29	G/A	0.770	1.04	ANAPC4	ANAPC4	1			
chr 5	rs11335718	OA	27	del/C	0.112	1.11	ANXA3	ANXA3	2			
	rs13107325†	OA	29	T/C	0.080	1.10	SLC39A8	SLC39A8	3			
	rs35611929†	knee	29	A/G	0.340	1.06	AP3B1	AP3B1	6			
	rs3884606†	H&K	29	G/A	0.490	1.04	FGFR18	FGFR18	5			1
	rs1800562*	hip-rec	28	G/A	0.073	1.95	HFE/HIST1H2BC	HFE	8			2
chr 6	rs115740542†	OA	29	C/T	0.070	1.06		HIST1H2BC	6			2
	rs10947262	knee	13	C/T	0.580	1.31	BTNL2	BTNL2	14			
	rs7775228	knee	13	T/C	0.620	1.34	HLA locus	HLA locus	4			
	rs9277552†	H&K	29	C/T	0.790	1.06	HLA-DPA1	HLA-DPA1	17			
	rs12154055†	OA	29	G/A	0.610	1.03	CDC5L	CDC5L	1			
	rs10948172	male	18	G/A	0.285	1.14	SUPT3H/RUNX2	SUPT3H	240			5
	rs2396502	hip	29	C/A	0.600	1.09		RUNX2	108			1
	rs1997995	hip	28	G/A	0.339	1.09		RUNX2	9			
	rs80287694†	hip	29	G/A	0.110	1.12	BMP5	BMP5	6			
	rs12209223	hip	28	A/C	0.107	1.16	FILIP1	FILIP1	7	He		1
chr 7	rs12209223	hip	29	A/C	0.100	1.17		FILIP1	7			1
	rs9350591	hip	18	T/C	0.126	1.18		FILIP1	91			2
	rs11409738 _{±,†}	OA	29	TA/T	0.370	1.04	DYNC1L1	DYNC1L1	8			
	rs11764536*	hip	28	C/A	0.023	1.26	HDAC9	HDAC9	2			
	rs3815148	K&Hd	14	C/A	0.230	1.14	DUS4L/COG5	COG5	328			7
	rs4730250	knee	15	G/A	0.170	1.17		DUS4L	73			
	rs143083812*	hip	28	T/C	0.001	2.84	SMO	SMO	1			1
	rs7792864	knee	24	C/G	0.880	2.35	linc01006	linc01006	2			
	rs330050†	OA	29	G/C	0.510	1.04	PPP1R3B	PPP1R3B	26			5
	rs4733724*	hip	28	A/G	0.790	1.11	GSDMC	GSDMC	89	He		10
chr 8	rs60890741 _{±,†}	hip	29	C/CA	0.860	1.11		GSDMC	10			2
	rs11780978	hip	27	A/G	0.387	1.13	PLEC	PLEC	108		↓ PLEC	24
	rs116882138	H&K	27	A/G	0.014	1.25	MOB3B	MOB3B	1			
	rs10116772	H&K	26	C/A	0.600	1.03	GLIS3	GLIS3	8			1
	rs10974438	OA	29	A/C	0.650	1.03		GLIS3	2			
chr 9	rs1078301*	knee	28	T/A	0.269	1.07	COL27A1	COL27A1	7			3
	rs919642†	OA	29	T/A	0.270	1.05		COL27A1	7			3
	rs2480930*	hip	28	A/G	0.494	1.09	TNC	TNC	29		↓ TNC	4
	rs1330349†	hip	29	C/G	0.580	1.08		TNC	16			2
	rs4836732	THR(F)	18	C/T	0.450	1.20	ASTN2	ASTN2	2			
	rs13283416	hip	28	G/T	0.424	1.10		ASTN2	3	He, HS		
	rs34687269	hip	29	A/T	0.530	1.09		ASTN2	8			
	rs10760442*	hip	28	G/A	0.621	1.09	LMX1B	LMX1B	10			1
	rs62578127†	hip	29	C/T	0.630	1.09		LMX1B	10			1
	rs17659798†	H&K	29	A/C	0.710	1.06	mir8068	mir8068	2			
chr 11	rs11031191†	OA	29	T/G	0.350	1.03	DCDC5	DCDC5	9			
	rs10896015*	hip	28	G/A	0.738	1.09	LTBP3	LTBP3	15			5
	rs10896015†	hip	29	G/A	0.730	1.08		LTBP3				
	rs34419890†	hip	29	T/C	0.930	1.13	C11orf80	C11orf80	9			
	rs1149620†	OA	29	T/A	0.570	1.04	TSKU	TSKU	6			
chr 12	rs4764133	hand	25	T/C	0.390	§	MGP/ERP27	ERP27	145		↓ MGP	13

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

rs10843013	hip	28	C/A	0.211	1.14	PTHLH/KLHL42	KLHL42	5			
rs10492367	hip	18	T/G	0.183	1.14		KLHL42	5	HS		
rs10492367	hip	29	T/G	0.190	1.16		KLHL42				
rs79056043†	hip	29	G/A	0.050	1.18	LRIG3	LRIG3	17			4
rs317630†	OA	29	T/C	0.270	1.04	CPSF6	CPSF6	40			
rs11105466†	H&/K	29	A/G	0.420	1.04	linc02399	linc02399	27			1
rs2171126†	OA	29	T/C	0.510	1.03	CRADD	CRADD	41			2
rs835487	THR	18	G/A	0.340	1.13	CHST11	CHST11	8			1
rs11059094†	hip	29	T/C	0.480	1.08	BCL7A/MLXIP	MLXIP	164			2
rs1060105*	knee	28	C/T	0.774	1.07	SBNO1	SBNO1	226	He	↑ CDK2AP1	5
rs56116847†	knee	29	A/G	0.360	1.06		SBNO1	11			
rs4765540*	hip	28	C/T	0.253	1.08	FAM101A	FAM101A	2	He		
chr 13	rs11842874	H&/K	17	A/G	0.919	1.17	MCF2L	MCF2L	11		3
chr 15	rs35912128‡,†	knee	29	AT/A	0.170	1.08	USP8	USP8	109		2
	rs3204689	hand	20	C/G	0.525	1.46	ALDH1A2	ALDH1A2	56		↓ ALDH1A2
	rs4775006	knee	29	A/C	0.410	1.06		ALDH1A2	10		↑ ALDH1A2
	rs12901071	H&/K	23	A/G	0.080	1.08	SMAD3	SMAD3	2		
	rs12901372	hip	28	C/G	0.553	1.08		SMAD3	23		4
	rs12901372	hip	29	C/G	0.530	1.08		SMAD3			
	rs35206230†	OA	29	T/C	0.670	1.04	CSK	CSK	25		4
chr 16	rs8044769	female	18	C/T	0.537	1.11	FTO	FTO	9		1
	rs9930333	H&/K	29	G/T	0.420	1.05		FTO	89		5
	rs6499244†	knee	29	A/T	0.560	1.06	NFAT5/WWP2	NFAT5	85		9
	rs34195470*	knee	28	G/A	0.538	1.07		WWP2	3	He	
	rs864839	hip	27	T/G	0.691	1.08	JPH3	JPH3	3		
	rs1126464†	OA	29	G/C	0.760	1.04	DPEP1	DPEP1	2		1
chr 17	rs35087650‡,†	knee	29	TT/del	0.260	1.07	SMG6	SMG6	1		
	rs2953013†	H&/K	29	C/A	0.300	1.05	NF1	NF1	240		3
	rs62063281†	hip	29	G/A	0.220	1.10	MAPT	MAPT	3,136		
	rs547116051‡,†	OA	29	AC/A	0.001	1.83		MAPT	1		
	rs7222178*	hip	28	A/T	0.205	1.09	NACA2	NACA2	3		
	rs7222178†	hip	29	A/T	0.200	1.10		NACA2			
	rs2521349	hip	27	A/G	0.410	1.13	MAP2K6	MAP2K6	25		↑ MAP2K6
	rs8067763†	knee	29	G/A	0.410	1.06	SOX9/ROCR	ROCR	9	He	
chr 18	rs10502437†	OA	29	G/A	0.600	1.03	TMEM241	TMEM241	7		
chr 19	rs1560707†	OA	29	T/G	0.370	1.04	SLC44A2	SLC44A2	62		↓ SLC44A2
	rs12982744	male	19	C/G	0.618	1.17	DOT1L	DOT1L	25		
	rs375575359	knee	27	del/T	0.040	1.21	ZNF345	ZNF345	1		
	rs75621460†	OA	29	A/G	0.030	1.16	TGFB1	TGFB1	1		1
	rs4252548*	hip	28	T/C	0.021	1.30	IL11	IL11	1	He	
	rs4252548†	hip	29	T/C	0.020	1.32		IL11			
	chr19:18898330	THR	22	G/C	0.003	16.7	COMP	COMP	1		
chr 20	rs143383	hip	11	T/C	0.740	1.79	GDF5	GDF5	108		
	rs143383	knee	16	T/C	0.609	1.17		GDF5	113		10
	rs143384	knee	28	A/G	0.614	1.10		GDF5	5	He, DDH, BA	3
	rs143384	knee	29	A/G	0.600	1.10		GDF5			
	rs6094710	hip	21	A/G	0.040	1.28	NCOA3	NCOA3	13		
chr 21	rs6516886	hip	27	T/A	0.764	1.10	RWDD2B	RWDD2B	32		1
	rs2836618†	hip	29	A/G	0.260	1.09	ERG	ERG	29		3
	rs532464664	hip-rec	22	ins8/-	0.039	7.70	CHADL	CHADL	1		
chr 22	rs117018441	hip-rec	28	T/G	0.032	5.89		CHADL	1		
	rs528981060‡,†	OA	29	A/G	0.001	1.68	SCUBE1	SCUBE1	1		

The number of variants with an $r^2 \geq 0.8$ (referred to the LD class in²⁸) of the OA variant calculated by LDlink⁴⁸ using the 1,000 Genomes Project phase three data⁴⁹ in the same population(s) as the GWAS study; **other traits**: loci also significantly associated with height (He,²⁸), bone area (BA,³⁹), hip shape (HS,³⁶) and developmental dysplasia of the hip (DDH,³⁷); **AI**: overlap of all DNA variants within the LD class and transcript SNPs from⁵² showing significant allelic imbalance (AI) in cartilage. The effect of the OA risk allele on gene expression is shown (↑ = increased and ↓ = decreased); **ATACseq SNPs**: number of DNA variants within the LD class that overlap ATACseq peaks in cartilage identified in⁷⁷. The ATACseq peaks in hg38 were lifted over into hg19 using the UCSC LiftOver tool and overlapped with OA DNA variants using the UCSC Data Integrator tool. An extended version of this table is available as Supplemental Table 1.

* novel loci identified in the deCODE-UKBB study²⁸.

† Novel loci identified in the arcOGEN-UKBB study³⁰.

‡ Loci only analysed in the UKBB cohort in²⁹; **H&/K**: hip and/or knee OA; **TJR**: total joint replacement; **TKR(F)**: total knee replacement (female); **hip-rec**: recessive hip OA; **K&/Hd**: knee and/or hand OA; **THR(F)**: total hip replacement (female); **EA**: effect (OA risk) allele; **NEA**: non-effect allele; **OR**: odds ratio.

Table 1

OA genetic risk loci identified at the genome-wide significance level. Note, the nearest gene refers to the nearest gene in 2D to the GWAS variant, which may not be the gene the genetic loci is acting upon to increase OA susceptibility

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is actually associated with increased expression of the nearby *CDK2AP1* gene rather than *SBNO1* itself, highlighting the usefulness of this dataset for prioritising genes as well as variants within OA susceptibility regions.

Transcriptomics

A wealth of novel human skeletal transcriptomic analyses were published the last year, including RNAseq based datasets of OA cartilage^{52–55}, timecourse analysis of *in vitro* chondrogenesis^{56,57} and profiling of human foetal chondrocytes, myoblasts, osteoblasts, ligamentocytes and tenocytes⁵⁷. Such RNAseq datasets generate a huge treasure trove of gene expression information, although the published studies typically focus only on a small subset of the data, with the remaining data either relegated to supplemental files or not provided. Furthermore, it is difficult to compare the results between studies due to differences in data analysis methods. These issues have been addressed by *SkeletalVis*, a new online web application designed as a specialised meta-analysis portal for skeletal disease transcriptomic datasets (<http://phenome.manchester.ac.uk/>⁵⁸). The portal currently contains microarray and RNAseq data from 300 studies encompassing a total of 779 individual analyses in cartilage and other OA-relevant tissues. *SkeletalVis* permits exploration and comparison of existing human and animal model datasets, including the identification of gene signatures across studies and species. Furthermore, the user can upload their own unpublished data in order to compare it to existing datasets and perform downstream analyses, including transcription factor and gene ontology enrichment analysis. The portal also allows the expression of a specific gene to be compared across the different experiments, a very useful tool for preliminary analysis of OA-associated genes identified through GWAS, transcriptomic and epigenomic studies.

Although bulk RNAseq studies are now the norm, advances in sequencing technology have allowed the transcriptome to be analysed at the level of individual cells. Single cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) is becoming increasingly popular, leading to new insights into development and disease⁵⁹. This year, the first human cartilage single-cell RNAseq analysed the transcriptome of 1,464 chondrocytes isolated from the tibial plateau of 10 knee patients⁶⁰. Seven molecular subgroups of OA chondrocyte were identified, including three novel populations termed effector (EC), regulatory (RegC) and homeostatic (HomC) chondrocytes. These subgroups can be classified based on expression of 792 genes, several of which map to newly identified OA susceptibility regions (e.g., *GLIS3*, *TGFB1*, *TNC* and *WWP2*). Single cell analysis of OA synovium has also been performed, with Chou and colleagues reporting analysis of over 10,000 synovial cells and 26,000 OA chondrocytes from three OA knee patients at OARSI 2019⁶¹. The number of single-cell RNAseq analyses of OA-relevant tissues is expected to rise over the next few years and these studies have the potential to identify new pathological cell types and pathways.

Epigenetics

MicroRNAs

Numerous microRNAs (miRNAs) have now been associated with cartilage development or homeostasis and during the development of OA⁶². To identify candidate miRNAs for future miRNA-based OA therapies, a study this year aimed to identify all cartilage miRNAs involved in OA pathophysiology⁵³. They leveraged mRNA and small RNA-seq data from 19 paired damaged and intact OA knee and hip cartilage samples in order to create a chondrocyte-specific interaction network of miRNAs with their target mRNAs. Utilising

predicted and validated miRNA target databases, an 'OA-specific miRNA interactome' of 62 differentially expressed miRNAs and 238 differentially expressed target mRNAs was generated. One notable miRNA was miR-99a-3p, which had not been associated with OA prior to the study. miR-99a-3p was downregulated in lesioned OA cartilage and targeted 36 genes, including *FZD1*, *ITGB5* and *GDF6*. A second large miRNA–miRNA cluster centred on the upregulated miRNA miR-143–3p, and consisted of 16 target genes including *DCAKD*, *AMIGO1* and *SMAD3*. Importantly, functional validation was performed for both miR-99a-3p and miR-143–3p, confirming several of the identified target interactions.

A number of other studies published this year have further expounded targets of miRNAs in cartilage and bone with implications for skeletal development and homeostasis. One study focused on miR-204⁶³, which is upregulated in human damaged OA cartilage and mouse cartilage with age or after OA induction. miR-204 is also induced by number of senescence inducers (including H2O2 and infra-red radiation). Interestingly miR-204 repressed chondrocyte sulphated glycosaminoglycan production by directly targeting a number of transcripts involved in cartilage proteoglycan biosynthesis, including genes crucial for chondroitin sulphate (CS) and hyaluronic acid formation. Furthermore, *in vivo* intra-articular injections of a miR-204 mimic exacerbated cartilage damage in the mouse DMM model, while miR-204 inhibitor injection caused a reciprocal protection against experimental OA. Inhibition of miR-204 in human chondrocytes could similarly upregulate CS levels and suppress catabolic MMP expression.

A second study focused on miR-181a-5p, which is increased in degenerated human facet joints and OA knee cartilage, and during mouse OA development⁶⁴. Injection of antisense oligonucleotides, which attenuate miR-181a-5p activity, reduced cartilage damage in knee joints with concomitant reduction in catabolic gene expression and markers of cartilage damage. This finding was confirmed in human cartilage explants and further work is required to characterise the targets and pathways mediating the effect of miR-181–5p in chondrocytes.

The crucial role of miR-140 in skeletal development is well established^{65,66}, and a novel pathological mutation within this miRNA was recently described⁶⁷. An A > G nucleotide substitution within the miR-140–5p seed region caused a novel human skeletal dysplasia with features including short stature, brachydactyly and delayed epiphyseal ossification leading to degenerative joint disease. This mutation causes both de-repression of conserved miR-140–5p targets and suppression of an additional repertoire of genes that are targeted by the new seed sequence. These include genes required for skeletal development such as *Loxl3* and *Hif1a*. Importantly, a knock-in mouse model containing the human miR-140–5p seed mutation had skull, cartilage and long bone development alterations, phenocopying the skeletal dysplasia features of the patients.

Other key findings in the miRNA field include the observation that miR-138-mediated inhibition of osteogenesis could be rescued by overexpression of its target *RhoC*⁶⁸, miR-93–5p may target *TCF4* to prevent cartilage matrix degradation⁶⁹, and finally, that miR-324–5p is upregulated in OA and targets the hedgehog signalling pathway in chondrocytes⁷⁰.

Other non-coding RNAs

Unlike miRNAs, research into the role of other types of non-coding RNAs in OA and cartilage remains in its infancy. These include long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs), a diverse group of non-coding transcripts over 200 nt in length. Although the role of individual lncRNAs such as *ROCR*³² have been investigated (reviewed in⁷¹), the first study to characterise lncRNAs genome-wide in OA

cartilage was published this year⁵⁴. Ajekigbe and colleagues sought to define the lncRNA transcriptome in OA cartilage by analysing both hip and knee cartilage RNA-seq data and identified a total of 1834 lncRNAs. Twenty lncRNAs were significantly differentially expressed between both OA and non-OA hip cartilage and preserved and damaged regions of OA knee cartilage, including the imprinted gene *MEG3*. Future work will focus on the identification of lncRNA functions in cartilage, thereby enabling investigation into the consequence of lncRNA expression changes in OA.

Circular RNAs (circRNAs) are single-stranded RNAs usually formed by alternative splicing of pre-mRNAs in which the 5' and 3' ends have been spliced together to form a loop⁷². Systematic analysis of circRNAs expressed in OA cartilage identified CircSERPINE2, which is formed by circularisation of exons 2–4 of the serine protease inhibitor gene *SERPINE2*⁷³. The expression of CircSERPINE2 in human cartilage was comprehensively validated and found to be downregulated in OA in contrast to the linear *SERPINE2* transcript. This circRNA is downregulated during OA and intra-articular overexpression of CircSERPINE2 alleviated OA severity in a rabbit model. Specific inhibition of CircSERPINE2 by siRNA caused the suppression of key cartilage genes such as *SOX9* and the upregulation of catabolic genes such as *MMP13*. CircSERPINE2 pulldown experiments identified binding of miR-1271, which is upregulated in OA, and the authors posited that CircSERPINE2 acts as a sponge for miR-127–5p. Indeed overexpression of miR-1271 in chondrocytes phenocopied the effect of CircSERPINE2 siRNA, while inhibition of miR-1271 could rescue the phenotype. However, miR-1271 is relatively lowly expressed in chondrocytes and other studies have failed to detect expression changes in OA suggesting other mechanisms of CircSERPINE2 action may still be discovered^{74,75}.

Genome-wide mapping of open chromatin and histone modifications

Within the OA epigenetics field, the majority of research has centred on DNA methylation and non-coding RNAs. The few studies of histone modifications have primarily focussed on the role of individual chromatin remodelling proteins in cartilage (e.g., DOT1L;^{45,76}) rather than genome-wide mapping of specific histone modifications and open chromatin. Techniques used for the latter analyses, namely chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIPseq) and DHS mapping, have previously required unfeasibly large number of freshly isolated cells (typically 1×10^6 to 2×10^7 cells), preventing such studies in cartilage. However, this has changed within the last year with publication of the first reports of histone ChIPseq and mapping of open chromatin regions in human chondrocytes^{57,77}.

In the first study, Ferguson and colleagues performed ChIPseq of fetal and adult chondrocytes for the active histone modifications H3K4me1, H3K4me3 and H3K27ac, and the repressive H3K27me3 mark using only 10,000 chondrocytes per ChIP⁵⁷. ChIPseq was also generated from pluripotent stem cells at day 14 and day 60 of *in vitro* chondrogenic differentiation. Matched RNAseq data available for both *in vitro* differentiation timepoints as well as the fetal and adult chondrocyte subtypes. Based on the combination of different histone modifications, 12 chromatin states were identified, including putative active promoter enhancer regions. Given the utility of the chromatin state information for future epigenetic studies, the authors have made the ChIPseq and RNAseq data available to download (GSE111850 and GSE106292 respectively).

In the second study⁷⁷, the open chromatin regions of preserved and damaged regions of knee cartilage from eight OA patients were mapped using the assay for transposase-accessible chromatin using sequencing (ATACseq;⁷⁸). This is a fast and sensitive alternative

method to DHS mapping that requires 5,000 to 50,000 cells, making analysis of cartilage and other primary joint tissues feasible. Of the 109,215 accessible chromatin regions identified in this study (available at <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41598-018-33779-z#MOESM1>), 71.1% mapped to putative enhancer regions, and 4% had altered accessibility between damaged and undamaged OA chondrocytes. DNA variants within several established OA loci map to these ATACseq peaks, as do the variants within 28 of the 56 new OA loci, including *LTBP1*, *LTBP3* and *SBNO1* (Table 1). Collectively, these chromatin datasets will be an invaluable resource for identifying non-coding regulatory regions in cartilage, and will aid prioritisation of OA risk variants and epigenetic changes for functional analyses.

Summary

Within the last year, the number of OA genetic risk loci has increased from 34 to 90^{28,29}, with several OA loci also associated with height, hip shape, DDH and bone area^{28,36,37,39}. However, functional studies are required to elucidate the molecular mechanism whereby these variants increase OA risk. Integrating genetic variants with genome-wide datasets of cartilage AI⁵², chromatin states⁵⁷ and open chromatin regions⁷⁷ will inform functional analyses of these loci. RNA sequencing studies have characterised new chondrocyte subtypes⁶⁰ and systematically identified all miRNAs⁵³, lncRNAs⁵⁴ and circRNAs⁷³ present in OA cartilage. The number of transcriptomic and epigenomic studies will continue to increase as sequencing costs fall and technical difficulties are overcome. As well as analysing cartilage from different joints at numerous time points in development, adulthood and during OA disease progression, future studies will hopefully examine additional disease-relevant tissues such as bone, synovium and fat pad.

Author contributions

Dr Louise Reynard searched the literature, summarised the results and wrote the manuscript, with Dr Matthew Barter contributing to the section on non-coding RNAs.

Conflict of interest

We have no conflicts of interest.

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Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joca.2019.11.010>.

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